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OBJECT TEACHING.

THE first ideas the mind possesses, are called simple or elementary ideas. These ideas are excited in the mind through the senses, and are of the primary qualities of matter.

From these facts, made known to us by consciousness, we learn, 1^o, the origin of our simple ideas, and 2^o, the nature of them.

It is the first duty of the teacher to furnish the occasion of these simple ideas. This is done by presenting objects, and directing the attention of the young mind to their form, number, color, size, etc.

Furnishing the occasion of the existence of simple ideas, is called primary instruction, or object teaching.

Although this kind of teaching has been understood and practiced ever since the time of Socrates, and Plato, and Aristotle, it has not attracted much attention in this country until within a few years. It is not yet known among us as a science. Those who are now studying object teaching, seem to be giving their attention to the different forms and means by which it may be applied, rather than to the principles upon which all forms and means of successful object teaching depend. On this account, there is now not a little danger of losing entirely the end for which this kind of

teaching should be used, and of loading down with complicated forms the simple process of presenting aright to the young mind the external world.

In determining what should be taught first, and in discovering the way in which the teaching should be applied, simple nature is the only trusty guide.

The immediate end of object teaching, is to excite in the mind correct elementary ideas of things.

To do this correctly, the teacher must understand the way in which the mind obtains its first ideas, and the relations these ideas hold to its future knowledge and its future development. After this knowledge is obtained, the following principles may serve as guides in the first work.

1°. We cannot first learn of sensible objects except through the senses.

This principle forbids any attempt on the part of the teacher to excite elementary ideas of objects by description. Objects must be seen, and felt, and tasted, before the learner can have ideas of form, of hardness, or of taste.

2°. We receive five kinds of knowledge through the senses, and each kind of knowledge must be received through its own appropriate sense. This principle informs the teacher, that color and form can be known only through sight; that all the qualities of objects made known by muscular resistance, must be presented to the sense of touch; that sound is made known through hearing; and that odor and savor are presented through smell and taste.

3°. The first knowledge the mind possesses is of facts; and these facts can not be transferred from the objects with which they are found connected to other objects unlike them.

From this the teacher may know, that the young student does not at first study effects with reference to their causes; that is, he does not study effects as effects, but simply as facts. For instance, he would see the rainbow in the heavens: its existence there, is to him a fact, and he would not inquire for its cause, or for any law in nature by which the rainbow is produced. The teacher then should present this phenomena simply as a fact.

We also learn from the third law, that we can not transfer the judgments we make of the qualities of one object to the same

qualities found in objects unlike it. If the student is taught to judge of the length of a rod or of a line, he can judge of the length of a rod or of a line, and of the length of nothing else. He can not transfer his judgments of simple length to length found combined with breadth, much less when found combined with breadth and thickness. In this teaching, a great error would be made by supposing, that exercises given for the purpose of training the mind to judge of the length of lines, will give it the power of judging of the length of *any* object in nature.

4°. Every object new in kind, must be studied independently.

The mind can not have an idea of two marbles, until it has first had an idea of one marble; of two pounds, until it has first had an idea of one pound. Therefore, in teaching numbers, the idea of one thing must be possessed, before an idea of a number of things is attempted.

One individual of a species must be known, before we can have any definite idea of a class.

5°. The facts taught must be such as we may afterwards wish to reduce to sciences; and we must be guided in teaching by a constant reference to the science that is to arise from the facts we teach.

We must not attempt to excite elementary ideas of form, color, size, weight, distance; of the human body, and of the human mind, in a sort of miscellaneous confusion, without reference to any particular use we may ever wish to make of these ideas, or without any thought of the kind of mental discipline secured by a study conducted without plan or method. I repeat, that in every object exercise, the teacher should have a clear idea of the relations the exercise holds to future study and to mental development.

For example, I wish to prepare a class to study Geography as a science. The students in Geography will be required to analyze the earth, and explain the causes of all the phenomena they have before observed as facts.

One of the facts to be referred to a cause, will be the form of the earth. Before this can be done, the form itself must be known. The teacher then must give such object lessons on form as will lead to correct ideas of the form of the earth. The form of the earth, is that of an oblate spheroid. This is the form to be present-

ed, and seen, and known, and named. But as all our acquired ideas are learned by comparison, we must compare a few forms, before that of an oblate spheroid can be distinguished from all other forms.

6°. The instruction must be so conducted as to lead the mind of the pupil to act for itself. This principle forbids the teacher to pour ideas into the mind, as he would pour liquid matter from one vessel into another; and it commands him to confine his labor to the development of that already created.

I will now present a method of conducting this exercise, observing the principles I have given in this article.

The first idea I wish to excite, is the idea of a body. I therefore present several bodies to the class, and lead the pupils to see these bodies and to feel them. I then tell them, that anything they can see and feel, is called a body. I next ask for the name of that which I hold in my hand. They will reply, a body. Why? Because we can see it and feel it. I can now use the term body, and know that the pupils have the idea of which the term is the name. I would then present a body having the form of an oblate spheroid. Remove the body, and request a pupil to select from several similar bodies having the same form.

If the body selected does not differ in form from the one presented, the selection must have been made by comparing the form of the body taken with the idea of the form presented. If the forms agree, the idea was correct. We have not yet given this form a name; nor have we yet learned the marks by which this peculiar form is distinguished from any other form. This is to be done by analyzing the form presented, and by teaching all that is necessary to know, in order to understand a definition of an oblate spheroid. This we can now do so as to make the term Oblate Spheroid as easily understood as any term in the language. Present a common rubber ball, and a wooden wheel of the same diameter. Call attention to the difference in the forms of these two bodies: one would seem to be round in all directions; the other, in only one direction. Call that body round in all directions a sphere. Why? Because it is round in all directions. Call upon the class to select from several objects having different forms one having the form of a sphere. Now press with the fingers upon

two opposite points of the spherical ball. Is this body a sphere now? It is not. Why? It is not round in all directions. Is it like a sphere? It is. Then you may call the body a spheroid, because "spheroid" means like a sphere. Why call it a spheroid? Because it is like a sphere. Now draw out these opposite points. What do you say of the body now? It is like a sphere. Present the two spheroids and call attention to the difference in their forms, and the way in which this difference was caused. The necessity for names by which these two spheroids may be distinguished, will be seen. Call that one made by pressing against two opposite points of a sphere by a name that signifies pressed against. This name is oblate. What is an oblate spheroid? An oblate spheroid is a spheroid formed by pressing upon two opposite points of a sphere. Now select from several objects one having the form of an oblate spheroid. If this is correctly done, we know that the pupil has the right idea of the form, and we also know that the name suggests the idea. Now we are prepared to teach the fact, that the earth has the form of an oblate spheroid. For an idea of this form has been received through the senses, a name has been given to this idea, and a definition by which it may be distinguished from all other ideas.

The successful teacher of elementary ideas must found his methods of instruction upon a most thorough knowledge of the wants of the human mind; and he must understand the relation this teaching holds to the whole plan of instruction. It will never be safe to entrust this teaching to the unskilful or unlearned. D.

ACCURACY IN TEACHING.

THE child regards things as the same which appear so to his eye. He calls arsenic flour, because it looks like flour—it is white. The oak and the maple, are to him both trees, and for aught he perceives, trees of the same kind.

It is no small part of education to discriminate between objects which resemble each other. The child, as he roams the field, is to be early taught the precise difference between the rose and the lily,

the pear and the peach, the robin and the bluebird. It is not enough for one to know, that the rose and the lily are flowers:— he must also know what kind of a flower is each.

It is often much more important to perceive the differences than the resemblances of objects. Arsenic looks like flour; but how different their properties! This habit, early formed in the child, of carefully noting the differences between things resembling each other, should find full exercise in the schoolroom. The exact difference between the figure and the 0, should be shown, before the pupil has advanced beyond the "Rule of Three." The difference between the multiplier and the multiplicand, should be so explained that the pupil can not, without gross carelessness, commit the blunder of multiplying books by cents and horses by dollars.

In division, the difference between finding how many *times* two books can be counted from eight books, and taking one half of eight books, should be made as clear as sunlight to the pupil. The precise difference between a common and a decimal fraction, should not fail to be noted—the former being the genus, and the latter the species. And what a bewildering maze is the subject of fractions, if presented in a mass, and not drawn out in a simple order, and the exact difference between multiplying, dividing, etc., clearly explained.

But we have the most painful reminiscences of Grammar. How long did our teachers try to beat into our brain, that "hat" is a "noun, because it is a name;" and "to be" a verb, because it implies "action, state, or being." We knew we lived in Massachusetts, and that several other States belonged to the Union; but that "to be," or any other verb, had anything to do with them, we did not and could not see, and doubtless were accounted dull. Now we apprehend the difficulty was, that the exact difference between the noun and the pronoun, the verb and the adverb, was not clearly pointed out and dwelt upon, until we perceived their differences and their resemblances.

Children study geography for years without knowing that the length of a degree of longitude at latitude 60° , is half that at the equator,—if indeed they learn there is any difference between the length of a degree at the equator and at the poles. And how many pupils know whether the Blue Ridge is east or west of the

Alleghanies, or whether the Alleghanies are older or younger than the Rocky Mountains?

If, in writing, we had been taught the precise difference between the forms of the letters *a* and *d*, *l* and *y*, we think our chirography would now be, if not more elegant, at least more regular and readable.

In the higher *mathematics*, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and conic sections, there is the same need of accurate discrimination. The confusion of the student in radical quantities, arises mainly from not carefully noting the differences between similar terms. How simple and beautiful becomes the ascending scale of propositions in Euclid, if each is mastered by itself, and its affiliated relations to others clearly seen. But how often have we seen the proof of the whole proposition utterly vitiated by leaving out one link of the chain of argument, or by failing to see the precise difference between the proposition in hand and that upon which it depends. Every link must be supplied, or the chain is but a rope of sand. How soon sines and cosines, tangents and cotangents become familiar terms to the student who strives to perceive clearly their exact significance and their various relations!

By the same simple forms he measures the distance across the neighboring lake, calculates the height of the mountains in the moon, the diameter of Jupiter, and the distance from the earth of stars in Orion's belt. The circle and the ellipse, the parabola and the hyperbola, the ordinate and the abscissa, come to be terms as clearly defined, to the student of close discrimination and exact thought, as the letters of the alphabet.

Comparison and precision are equally needed in the study of Latin and Greek. The careless student perceives no difference between *vir* and *homo*, *mens* and *animus*, *amo* and *diligo*, ζῶν and βίος, ἀγαπάω and φιλέω; but the accurate scholar has a distinct and sharply defined notion of each, and hence of their precise difference. How upon the dry bones of a dead language comes the flesh, vital in every part, when the histories of words are traced from their roots, their various expansions, contractions, and changes of meaning noted, their relations to other words ascertained, and their equivalents in another language found.

Studying a dead language thus, it becomes alive with interest,

and greater precision of thought and accuracy of speech are daily gained.

Teachers cannot insist too much upon definite thought, upon precise knowledge. The pupil must be required to repeat, must be drilled, until it is certain that he has the exact thought — and the only sure evidence to the teacher that he has this thought, is the precise utterance of it by the pupil.

This is the drill, the mental gymnastics, which is to give precision and power of thought. As the thousand trained soldiers will put the untrained ten thousand to flight; so the mind trained by this exact discipline, even if its native strength is not greatly increased, can *wield* its resources with a tenfold power. The rough ore of the mind becomes the polished steel of the Damascus blade, with ready temper and keen edge.

We fear there is still a lack of accurate teaching in our schools. The tendency and the temptation are very strong to let an answer or a statement pass uncorrected, if it is *nearly* correct. It is trying in the extreme for a teacher to demand of a pupil the statement of a principle for the tenth time, if accuracy is not before attained. But it must be done. It is not the office of the teacher to impart or to seek to develop *uncertain* thought, — enough vague ideas are gathered from the various walks of life, — but it is his duty to train the pupil to habits of exact thinking and accurate speaking.

But as there are exceptions to nearly all rules, the practical teacher will make some exceptions to his demand for perfect accuracy. There are a few pupils who, partly, perhaps, from constitutional inaptitude, and partly from defective early training, can be but comparatively accurate. Even if set forms are driven into their minds for the tenth time, it is more than probable that they will utterly break down at the eleventh trial. Few ideas in their minds are even so clearly defined as to admit of definite expression. They belong to the class who "know, but cannot tell." Such pupils need the charity that "suffereth long, and is kind." A comparative degree of accuracy is all that can be secured in their case, without trenching upon the rightful demands of the great majority of the school. Providence evidently did not design this class to be *scholars*; but they will fill some gap in society, and may be useful to the world in some honorable calling.

No true discipline can be secured without the accuracy to which we have above referred. Accurate teaching presupposes, of course, a disciplined teacher, — a teacher whose mental processes are active, clear, and logical. The definitions given in text-books must not be accepted by the teacher as correct, without the most thorough tests. The order of thought will rarely be the same as that which the disciplined teacher will present. And even should the order in the text-book chance to be the same, the teacher will remould and reissue the subjects, bearing the stamp of his own mint — yea, his own “image and superscription.”

Under careless teaching pupils are listless, without interest and without fixed thought; while accurate teaching secures attention, awakens thought and arouses enthusiasm in all but the dullest. But to teach accurately, requires constant study. Without this study every teacher is virtually retrograding. There must be a constant reaching out after new knowledge, a perceiving of new relations, and a remarshalling of the whole gained for efficient use. The battle with ignorance, though bloodless, is long and severe; and the weapons of the faithful teacher's warfare must be kept burnished and ready for constant service.

The teacher's work is arduous; but the end to be secured for his pupils, a disciplined and heavenly mind, is glorious, and his own reward is sure.

E. F., JR.

OUT OF THE SCHOOLROOM.

WE love books, we love study; we love often with these silent companions to while away hours of solitude; to bring around us the spirits of the great and good, whose beautiful lines and elevated thoughts have been a blessing to the world. We love often to find in such companionship the “thoughts that have lingered in our own minds, and peopled their inner chambers,” vainly struggling for expression, here clothed in living beauty. We love to gather strength and courage for the weary march of life, by thus gazing at the “footprints” left by those whose lives have been “sublime.”

We love the crystal streams that flow from the fount of Poesy.

We love there to slake our thirst ; to rise above the dusty paths of daily life, and commune with the spirit that sits enthroned in Beauty's inner temple. And we love the earnest toil that study brings, the noble effort ; we love the labyrinths of mathematics, the vernacular of Cæsar and Virgil, the lore of ages past. The principles and illustrations of Hydraulics, Mechanics, and Optics, have an interest for us. We even find the study of our mother tongue, alias the "Rudiments of English Grammar," not wholly devoid of charms ; and we have more than once seen the time when we loved, — yes, really loved, — to write a composition. But young heads sometimes grow weary even *in* the way of well doing, though we would trust not *of* it. The spirit may be willing, but the flesh is often weak. The faithful, patient teacher, laboring oft in loneliness and tears, through evil report and good report, sometimes wearies. The great glory and beauty of "rearing the tender thought," is seen but dimly through the shadows of the care-burdened present. Faith is eclipsed by sight. The latent genius, the reward that shall be, does not appear amid the profound depths of ignorance, and the precepts often given to be as often forgotten.

We can not always pore with equal interest over the pages of Philosophy and Chemistry, the hard examples in square and cube roots, the problems of Algebra, the propositions of Euclid. The declension of *musa* and *dominus*, the conjugation of *amo* and *monco*, the fables of the immortal *Æsop*, and the wanderings of *Virgil's hero*, the pious *Æneas*, sometimes lose their charm.

For a little season we will forget all these ; we will close our well-worn books ; we will cease to be troubled with the teacher's weary cares ; we will go forth to read lessons of love, wisdom, beauty, and power from nature's deep-toned volume. We will refresh our longing spirits by worshipping in her vast and glorious temple ; by communing with the spirit whose spell is over the earth and sea, "the kingly spirit throned among the hills ;" by drinking in the wondrous beauty that floods this mountain-circled valley ; by listening to the myriad voices that come from the earth and air, the mystic music of nature's *Æolian harp*.

The glorious summer time is over this mountain land in all its wealth of beauty. The lofty heights that circle our valley, even

as the mountains were round about Jerusalem, but a short time ago hoary with frost, now "tolerant" with verdure to their tops, robed all over with freshness; the deep hemlock, and the dark foliage of the "million-fingered pine," mingling gracefully with the softer shades of the beech and maple; the gently rolling Housatonic, as, with "sweet and solemn flow," it winds through the vale, flashing with the golden sunlight that falls upon its blue waters; the starry flowers that open their soft petals, shedding their beauty and fragrance in the forest shades; the verdant meadow and dusty wayside; the bow of promise that spans the darkened heavens; the gladness and glory of the morning; the hush and sweetness of the evening; — all these have a charm, — "a presence that disturbs us with the joy of elevated thoughts," — that makes us dream of heaven.

We have loved the ocean in its solemn grandeur, its "unceasing thunder and eternal foam," its crested waves, its perpetual anthem, the deep-toned surging of the moaning sea; and we have felt by its side as if in the immediate presence of the Invisible. Next to that of the ocean, is our love for the "glorious old solemn mountains" that lift the mind from earth, and fill it with noble thoughts.

List to the voices, silent they may be, yet eloquent withal, stirring the fine chords of the soul, as we still worship in the temple not made with hands; the low murmur of the winds amid the young green leaves, "the soft and soul-like sound" of the whispering pines, the rippling of the waters, the noiseless coming on of the twilight, the falling of the dew, the music of the spheres, as one by one the stars look forth from their blue homes in the distant fields of ether. We watch their out-coming, but under these softer skies vainly look for the constellations that shed their glory over the winter firmament. Orion's majestic form, Leo's kingly brow, with Aldebaran, the glory of Taurus, no longer glitter on the mantle of night. But "the great northern light never sets; the constellations that walk around and watch the pole, are still here, undecayed, unchanging."

And what is the ministry of this world of beauty to our spirits? These sweetly tuned voices, what is their language to us? Do they not speak of Him who is infinite beauty and loveliness, whose presence overshadows all that He has made? Do we not

always hear the voice of God walking in the garden in the cool of days or under the starlight? And do we not long for the inner beauty of the spirit, for that purity of heart and soul which comes from likeness to God, from walking in His footsteps, who was meek and lowly, undefiled, and separate from sinners? Do not these verdure-clad mountains lead our yearning thoughts away to the delectable mountains of the spirit land, the home of the redeemed soul, where shall come no night of sorrow, because there is no sin?

These are the lessons we best love to learn, as the finite communes with the Infinite amid the beauties of this lower world, which but faintly foreshadow the glory and purity of the world beyond, where the victor's crown, and the white robe of righteousness await the pure in heart, the faithful unto death. P. A. H.

PHILO M. SLOCUM.

PHILO M. SLOCUM was born in Tolland, Mass., April 5, 1831. During the last two years of his life, he was a teacher in the Westfield Normal School, and in the spring of 1861 was employed as one of the lecturers in the Teachers' Institutes. He had planned a northern tour for the summer vacation of 1861, for the purpose of making collections in Geology and Natural History. He proceeded as far as Essex Junction, Vt., and, on the morning of the 9th of September crossed Lake Champlain, in pursuit of deer. He returned unusually exhausted. On that night he was attacked with a fever, which on the 10th of October closed his life. He left a wife and son. We may not record the virtues of the living, else we would speak of his self-sacrificing companion — the sharer of his toils.

MR. SLOCUM entered the Normal School in the autumn of 1857. His previous experience had been wide and varied. During the four years immediately preceding, as a reporter in Congress, he had mingled in the bustle and excitement of our national capital.

The period of his stay at Washington gave many opportunities for improvement, but he found the employment of a reporter not altogether agreeable. The flattery that was constantly extorted from him often did violence to his sense of justice and truth, and led him to seek another employment.

He engaged in the sale of a patent right; but, proving unsuc-

cessful in this enterprise, he returned to Tolland. After considering various plans, he determined to go to Westfield, and, by a patient and thorough course of study, fit himself for the work of a teacher.

In Westfield, as a pupil and afterwards as a teacher, the most important part of his life was spent. At the time of his entering the school he was among the oldest of his class. It was not expected that he would be as easily moulded in character and habits as some of the younger members of the school; but in this, his teachers were most happily disappointed. While he made every truth he received *his own*, so that he applied it as no borrowed notion, he was as teachable as a child.

Judging from his previous varied and active life, it was thought that he would be satisfied with a knowledge of the more general truths of the branches taught, and would have little relish for the minutiae of elementary studies; but, in the thoroughness and accuracy of his preparation for the recitation hour, he was all that the most exacting teacher could desire; while his enthusiasm and ready mode of expressing everything he had prepared, clothed the truths and illustrations which he presented with a new freshness and power. Teacher and class often went from the recitation-room, feeling that though others had presented the truths of the lesson clearly and fully, none had invested them with such force and fervor as Slocum.

At the close of the second year in Westfield, he was appointed one of the teachers of the school, and continued to occupy that position till the time of his death.

He possessed those qualities which preëminently fitted him for the work he had chosen. He was patient and persistent in acquiring, and earnest in communicating truth. He investigated the most familiar subjects with so much zeal and patience that he was able to present the principles of the sciences he taught in all the freshness of newly-discovered truths.

He possessed great inventive power, and an equal facility in communicating what he had conceived. Even in his boyhood he was noted for his originality; — in later years, his inventive power was of service to him, as a reporter, in preparing his notes for the press. His skillful embellishment of his reports made him a favor-

ite among the speakers in Congress. His fertility in originating new methods of presenting facts and principles lent a charm to his teaching, and led the students to exercise their own powers of invention.

His skill in delineating upon paper or upon the blackboard the objects he wished to describe, greatly aided him in presenting his conceptions. In no department was this of more service than in Natural History. With rapid strokes of the crayon, he would trace the forms of animals upon the board, giving them so much expression that they often seemed ready to leap from the wall. This facility in representation was not only useful in imparting knowledge ; — it served a far higher purpose : it proved more forcibly than words the value of drawing, and stimulated the pupils of the school, looking forward to teaching as their life-work, to acquire this important art.

Mr. Slocum devoted himself particularly to the study of Natural Science ; and, in addition to his labors in the school, had partially prepared a work upon Physical Geography, and another upon Natural History.

Not satisfied with the mere acquisition of knowledge from books, he was ever anxious to apply what he had learned, and to observe for himself. Hence, when kept from school by temporary indisposition, if able to walk from his house to the river-side, he was often found chipping and breaking the rocks that line its bed ; and on Saturdays, when relieved from the labors of the schoolroom, he was often engaged in his favorite pastime. There was little of selfishness in these employments of his leisure hours ; — he shared the specimens he gathered, with his pupils and friends, — he gave the results of all his researches to the school.

One Saturday was spent in a geological survey of Mt. Tekoa, and, as a result, we enjoyed a full description of this mountain which rears its head west of our village. At another time, a day's tour over the hills of Russell furnished us a like intellectual repast.

His enthusiasm and his love for the work were the great secret of his success as a teacher. His soul was kindled with the truths he taught. Had the ardor of his enthusiasm been less intense, he might have been longer with us, but less successful in accomplishing the object of his life. As we review his few but active years

as a teacher, we realize the force of the truth, that earnest thought and noble action are a far better measure of life than years.

His cheerfulness was remarked by all who knew him. Often in his hours of recreation, and, when the occasion permitted, in the recitation-room, and before public assemblies, the exuberance of his buoyant spirits found expression in genial humor and racy wit. His own good cheer was a constant source of cheerfulness to those about him; while his ready wit made it easy for him to raise at will the tide of merriment.

In him were combined qualities not often united: an ardent temperament, and great equanimity. A gentleman, now a member of the bar, who has known Mr. Slocum from childhood, says that he never knew him to lose his good temper.

Mr. Slocum was fully aware of the worth and utility of his profession; and he tried at all times to inspire the minds of his pupils with the deepest sense of the importance of a thorough preparation for their work. Whatever might be the success of his teaching, in the opinion of others, it never seemed to reach his own standard of excellence. He was therefore engaged in an earnest contest, not merely to excel others, but to outdo himself; and thus his daily teachings were enriched by constant acquisitions of a mind whose activity was unabated even by the ravages of disease.

His earnest life is a worthy example to all teachers. He knew well that genius without labor would accomplish little; and that he who would teach others or be "foremost in the race of life" must invigorate his own mind, by giving his days and nights, not to the allurements of pleasure or the charms of ease, but to earnest thought, and to the study of those works which the masters of science have given us.

While the season of Mr. Slocum's residence in Westfield was a period of rapid intellectual growth, it was especially marked by the development of his religious life.

Most of his previous years had been spent in active and varied pursuits, unfavorable to those habits of earnest thought and deep reflection, which the continued study and retired life of a faithful student are calculated to secure. When he came among us, he was skeptical, or, rather, undecided, in reference to many of the truths of revelation. In the acquisition of those sciences which are

taught in the Westfield school, pupils are required to receive nothing as truth upon mere authority. The pupils are of such an age that every subject brought before the class can be subjected to individual criticism and general discussion. Nothing is admitted as truth until it has passed this ordeal, and been referred to known principles, or traced to known causes.

This analytic method of investigating truth, and the candor which it induces, were not without their effect upon Mr. Slocum. Before he had completed his course in the school, he was led honestly to consider the grounds of belief, and review the religious opinions he had formed. The result was not uncertain: — he admitted that the evidences in favor of Christianity are conclusive.

He was too earnest to stand upon any middle ground — it would have been contrary to his nature to have rested in mere theoretical belief. In all his studies he was satisfied with nothing short of the practical application of the truths he had mastered. The truths of revelation became to him a voice from God.

After weeks of reflection and prayer, guided by that Spirit whose influences he had sought, he accepted Christ as his Saviour. This was, indeed, the beginning of a higher life. The facts of his own experience as revealed in his own consciousness, annihilated all doubts of the reality of the religion of Christ; by doing "His will," he was led to "know of the doctrine," that it was "of God."

Henceforth, all he undertook was characterized by a nobler zeal and a deeper enthusiasm; — the object of his life seemed to be to secure the highest development of his being, and to do good to those about him. Those minds — and there are many such — that have been warmed into a higher life by the ardor of his spirit, will never cease to feel the force of his example. He is no longer with us as before; but his influence still lives. The results of his intellectual labor for his classes are yet with us, and in our cabinets are the trophies of his toil. When we apply the methods he invented — study the principles he arranged, or analyze the specimens he collected — the portals of the past open upon us, and we seem to see him again in the midst of his labors — surrounded by his classes. We are glad that his earnest and loving spirit was so long with us.

The weary son of the desert, as he quenches his thirst by the shaded well, mentions the name of him who pierced the desert, and opened the fountain, with religious reverence. With a deeper feeling, we love to join the name of *Slocum* with all he has done for the pupil, in his pilgrimage for truth.

J. C. G.

For the Massachusetts Teacher.

A THOUGHT OR TWO ON A VERY TRITE SUBJECT.

"*Τὸ πάθει μάθος*," wrote Æschylas, hundreds of years ago. "Knowledge by suffering entereth;" translates Mrs. Browning of but yesterday. And this is the secret of the whole matter. What whole matter, pray? The whole matter of education, I mean. Write it again, Mr. Editor.

"Knowledge by suffering entereth,
And life is perfected by death."

Print it in big letters in your schoolroom, fellow teachers; post it up over your study-table; engrave it deep on your heart. Emboss it in golden letters on ivory tablets, and it is worth more than thousands of them. No matter if yonder boy does cut himself and spoil the tool he is trying to use. Let him alone; let him cut himself; let him spoil the tool if he will. Two or three little flesh-cuts will teach him more than so many pages of printed wood-cuts; from that broken tool he will learn more than from an hour's explanation.

Once was the time, I know, when more heed was given to the knowledge thus acquired by experience, and less to what was stigmatized as "book-learning." But 'tis a narrow bridge this path to knowledge. We of the present day have fallen on the other side of it:—we trust too much to book-learning, or the experience of others, too little to our own. When *will* we learn to walk erect between the two abysses.

I do not suppose these few somewhat crude thoughts on the subject, which, trite as it is, can never be worn quite threadbare, will have much effect on your education, reader, which, in common

phrase, is supposed to be "finished;" but perhaps they may contribute their little mite to the right education of those whom you have the charge of. And so I put them forth, as the sibyl did her leaves, humbly hoping they may be rightly interpreted and do their little mission.

It seems to me, we hurry our scholars too soon into studies they can at best only *imperfectly* understand. A boy or girl twelve or fourteen years old *may* be able to understand the laws of gravity, light, heat, sound, the principles and construction of Atwood's Machine, the Steam Engine, etc., etc. I do not say they are not. I only know that when I "went over" these things I comprehended them about as thoroughly as I did why the earth revolved around the sun, what made it turn on its own axis, why it was that the moon seemed at first only a crescent, then gibbous, then full, then gibbous again, until finally we had no moon and then a new moon again, — and other similar questions which everybody understands so perfectly now.

But do not misunderstand me. It is not the hardness of the text-books I object to — there is little enough reason for complaint on that score — it is this hurrying the scholars into the subjects the text-books treat of before they are able to comprehend them, I had almost said, before they can understand the English language. I repeat, it is not the hardness of the text-books I complain of, for, as a general thing, they are all too abominably easy.

A certain degree of hardness, not to say abstruseness, is a very desirable quality in a book which is intended to be *studied*. The labor it costs the pupils to make out the author's meaning infixes it all the more firmly in their memory. In this age of multitudinous school-books, it seems to be the height of ambition among the book-makers to make everything as easy as possible for the scholars, — I dare not say for the teachers too. It is rather a luxury now-a-days, to come across a real hard school-book. Father Greenleaf's National "undiluted" would be a treasure, but for those awful puzzles, "masked batteries" as some one has called them, which you fall upon every few pages, very good things in themselves, doubtless, but not always, not often, altogether to the point.

The very limited time, though, allowed for the very *unlimited* number of studies to be pursued in order to produce "a finished

scholar," makes the fact of easy text-books almost a necessity. In no other way could the more extended course of study, which is thought to be so desirable, be carried through; but it proves often, I fear, more extended in the latest signification, that employed by the late State Liquor Agency, I mean. As Horace Mann said, "The most glib recitation becomes the best, and the less the scholars are delayed by thought, the faster they can prate, as a mill clacks quicker when there is no grist in the hopper." The thing to be desired is to cram the greatest possible amount into the poor pupil's brain in a given time; and he or she who can stow away the most with the fewest wry faces, is the best boy or girl, and stands at the head of the class. This process, I know, turns out what are called "splendid scholars;" but it is the glitter only and not the solidity of the gold we see. The thin plating of superficial knowledge soon wears off; almost as soon as the galvanic current of prizes and credits has ceased to flow. How many of them, think you, can give an intelligent recitation, in their own words, of the subject-matter of the book they have studied, or are studying. Very few I trow. And yet, what is all their studying for? Not surely to make of them intellectual misers, as it were, each with his little pile of knowledge, with no power or ability to communicate it to others. I look upon a miser of knowledge, or a book-worm, as so much worse than a miser of money, as the one commodity is more valuable than the other.

That seems to me to be a good measure of a man's ability which measures him according to his facility in expressing his thoughts clearly and forcibly. You will invariably find that a good writer is a person of remarkably good abilities. If he knows or reads but little, he possesses the rare power of making that little his own, or, what is still better, of making it another's also. Ask the graduate of any college whom he considers the smartest, the most promising men in his class, and he will tell you the best writers, who are oftentimes to be found among the "*οἱ πολλοί*," as regards rank in scholarship.

It is not the few facts the pupils may pick up out of the multitudinous branches they pursue that is to be the reward of their labor. If this were all, it would be a meagre reward indeed. Rather is it to learn the principles which underlie the facts, to un-

derstand the meaning of facts: in a word, to learn *how* to study rather than to learn the studies. But how they are going to learn this most difficult of all lessons, under the present condition of things, it is hard to see. It is something each one must learn for himself. Easy text-books do but hinder, instead of help. By the sweat of thine own, and not another's brain, must thou attain thy intellectual growth.

Oh! these mental dyspeptics, who come in such throngs from our High Schools, Academies, Seminaries, and Colleges, so careful to read, mark, learn, and recite, perhaps, to perfection, but whose inward digestion is so sadly weak. And is it to be wondered at when we consider what they have had to go through? They have had knowledge poured into them by the book-full, from the time they entered school, till they graduate with "the highest honors."

I have somewhere read of a land, which, like that "famous fabled country, 'way down east," exists only in dreams, where, as the fable runs, the more of his faculties a man exercises the higher is his stand in the social scale, and where the bodies of the men and women are visibly developed according to the use made of their powers. A man, for instance, who cultivated his brain to the neglect of his body — what we would call a literary man, I suppose — would be all head, with only body enough just to keep himself alive; a public speaker you could tell, as you can the news-boy in cities, by an enormous mouth. In truth, the caricatures of Punch and Vanity Fair would be no exaggeration, but the sad reality. In such a country, I fear me, our splendid scholars would hardly be found among the "upper ten." I scarcely know how you would recognize them, unless by their general dwarfish and stunted appearance. For the symmetrical development of body and mind, the only passports to social or political distinction in this country of the Skitzlanders, has become a thing so uncommon among us, that, though deformities of the body still continue to excite our pity or disgust, yet deformities and distortions of mind, so far from exciting our pity, are looked upon as something rather to be desired, and are held up as models worthy of all imitation.

These mental monstrosities are considered as superior to the rest of mankind, geniuses who deserve praise rather than pity, congrat-

ulation rather than condolence! We laud to the skies the possessor of a dozen languages with less perhaps than a dozen ideas, and for "self-made" men there is no end of praise. Self-made men, forsooth, as if a man could be anything *without* doing it all for himself: — a sort of great man by proxy, — ridiculous! You talk about the difficulties your so-called self-made men have met and overcome. Why! they were the very things which made men of them.

You might as well expect to gain the strength of a Dr. Windship by living on cracker-toast and crust-coffee, as hope to make anything out of a boy or girl by rich friends and an easy life.

A single word in conclusion, and I have done. "Life," says Dr. Huntington, "*is* the test of learning. Knowledge *is* the criterion of power. Not what a man has, but what he is, is the question after all."

Yes, and so it is. Not what our scholars may *know*, but what they shall *be*, is the question for us to consider. We are training — and we know it, but think of it far too seldom — those who are to be the fathers and mothers of the Republic — nay more, those who are to live forever. Under our charge are they laying the foundation of an education, which shall be finished — *never!* Let us be sure that they lay it sure and strong. Let us develop, as far as in us lies, harmoniously, but not hastily, all their powers of mind, aye, and body, too; that body, as Mann says, "with a power of fifty years of beneficent labor compacted in its frame." Let us teach them something which shall be permanently and truly valuable; teach them to know themselves; to measure their own resources; and, in short, make of them men and women, real men and women, able to think, speak, act for themselves.

THIS notice was lately posted on the estate of an English nobleman in Kent:

"Notice is hereby given that the Marquis of — (on account of the backwardness of the season), will not shoot himself nor any of his tenants till after the 16th of September!"

BENEFITS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

THE war between the Northern and Southern States is showing, in various ways, the importance of Common School education. If all the people at the South had been as well educated as the mass of the people at the North, it is presumed they would never have inaugurated such a rebellion. They would have read and thought for themselves, and could not have been made the tools of crafty leaders.

In the Northern States, provision is made by which every child, rich or poor, shall receive, free of charge, such an education as will qualify him for the ordinary business of life. These schools are of such a character that they are patronized by men of all ranks and conditions in life. It is an honor, rather than a disgrace, to have acquired in these Primary Schools the rudiments of knowledge.

It is not so at the South. There are, it is true, in those States *some* Public Schools; but they are spoken of as schools *for the poor*, which men of rank and wealth never patronize. The consequence is, that the poor, who need the benefits such schools afford, grow up in ignorance rather than attend a school for paupers.

Public sentiment in the South has never been in favor of *universal* education, by which an opportunity is given to the poor to qualify themselves for honorable positions in society. A governor of Virginia, in one of his messages, thanked God that "they had in that State no Public Schools."

Who has not been gratified to see that Northern young men, by reason of their ability to read and to reason, can so soon be transformed into well disciplined troops, and can perform any kind of labor which the exigency of their circumstances requires. They can repair a locomotive, and build a bridge or a railroad when occasion requires.

The friends of Public Schools and of the Union may learn from facts being developed by the war, the benefits of Common School education. When peace returns, it must be our aim to extend the benefits of Common Schools to all the children that dwell in the land.

E. D.

LEGAL RECOGNITION OF TEACHING AS A
PROFESSION.*

WE cordially sympathize with every practicable measure to increase the personal qualifications, the public appreciation, the social standing, and the rewards of teachers. There are already many teachers in our Public Schools, who would be an acquisition and an honor to any of the so-called learned professions, to whom a professorship in college would hardly be a promotion in rank, influence, or emolument. It is a gratifying fact that the qualifications and wages of teachers have been steadily advancing for many years with the progress of public sentiment and without any legal coercion. There is sometimes danger of excessive or hasty legislation on educational questions. The most urgent present need is to carry out and apply in its details the noble system already legalized, rather than to modify existing statutes. It may be safer to tolerate some supposed or even real defects than to hazard ill-considered experiments.

It would be no easy task to convince a Massachusetts Legislature of the wisdom of providing by statute that each Teachers' Association should resolve itself "from an open into a close professional body, by assuming the right of examining, admitting, and certifying its own members," and thus securing "its independent rank as a self-constituting, self-asserting, and self-perpetuating body, invested with that legal authority which shall render its professional licenses competent to the exclusion of all others."

Among the difficulties in the way of such a measure, may be named the large number of teachers annually employed in our Public Schools, (7,414 in the year 1861), the great difference in their qualifications, the brief time of service of very many — often not extending beyond a year, and sometimes but a single term — the cost and friction of machinery which this plan would demand. The duty of examining teachers now performed by local committees as a part of their official work, with little or no extra charge, would be a truly formidable task for a central Board of Examiners, to say nothing of the expense of time and money to some hundreds, or more properly thousands of "candidates for licensure."

* Report of a Committee appointed by the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association at Taunton, Nov., 1861, to be considered at the next Annual Meeting at Worcester.

School Committees often welcome and improve the day of "the annual examination of teachers" as a sort of "teachers' meeting," and then present their plans, discuss educational measures, and give such hints as their experience and observation may suggest. Our people are tenacious of their local and municipal privileges. School Committees, prompted alike by their regard for popular sentiment and the interests of the schools, would not willingly surrender the right and duty of examining teachers to any State or County Board of Examiners.

In view of these considerations, your Committee deem it inexpedient, at present, to recommend any measures to secure a Legal Recognition of Teaching as a Profession.

B. G. NORTHROP, *Chairman.*

NOTES UPON MILTON.

THE conceptions which a poet combines to form his imagery, are mostly acquired in early life. Hence, his place of residence, the scenery with which he is surrounded, — all the circumstances and events of his early life — will do much to determine the character of his poetry.

The best imagery of the poet is derived from works of nature. Natural objects are the best known, and are the most pleasing.

Milton's early days were spent in the city of London. He could not store those conceptions of natural objects, that furnish the richest material for the service of the poet's imagination, as well as if he had been born and bred in the country. The effect of the circumstances of Milton's early life is discoverable in his works. Many of his illustrations are drawn from the books he read; he obtained much of his imagery through the misty medium of others' thoughts. Many of his illustrations are historical — undefined in their outlines, rather than forms fresh from the scenes of nature. In proof of this, it will be sufficient for our present purpose to refer to passages in "Paradise Lost," the greatest of his poems.

In Book 1st, lines 196 — 200, Satan is said to be

"in bulk as huge
As whom the fables name of monstrous size,
Titanian, or Earth-born, that warr'd on Jove,
Briareos, or Typhon, whom the den
By ancient Tarsus held."

Similar passages may be found in Book 1st, lines 351-355; 763-766; 780-781; Book 2d, lines 542-546, etc. The illustrations employed in these passages are not as well understood as those drawn from natural objects, and are not as pleasing. They do not appear to have quite satisfied Milton himself, for he often adds another illustration in the same connection.

We would not imply that Milton's poems are deficient in natural imagery; no other poet has been more successful in causing nature to be the minister of his thoughts—but the large proportion of historic and mythic illustrations; rendering some passages needlessly obscure, have somewhat marred his inimitable poems.

The sky, with its shifting scenery of clouds, its blending of light and shade, and its moving orbs of changeless beauty, is open alike to dwellers in city and country. Illustrations drawn from the heavens occur frequently in Milton's works, and produce the finest effect upon the imagination of the reader.

We will give but a single passage; leaving the lover of poetry to cull others for himself.

After picturing the legions of fallen angels, in battle array, Milton thus describes the appearance of their leader, Satan:

"——— he, above the rest,
In shape and gesture proudly eminent,
Stood like a tower: his form had not yet lost
All her original brightness, nor appeared
Less than archangel ruined, and the excess
Of glory obscured: as when the sun new-risen
Looks through the horizontal, misty air,
Shorn of his beams; or from behind the moon,
In dim eclipse, disastrous twilight sheds
On half the nations, and with fear of change
Perplexes monarchs."

Milton's residence in London better fitted him to delineate the characters of the actors introduced into his poems. A large city

furnishes the best opportunity for the study of character. The various attributes of man are there most easily traced.

The character which any poet gives to any actor is necessarily made up of human attributes, for he can know nothing of any other. The actors may be superhuman, but the character of each is some phase of human nature, modified by the imagination of the poet.

The characters which Milton introduces in his poems are finely portrayed. This is evident to any one who reads in connection what the poet says of

"Mammon, the least erected spirit that fell
From heaven;"

of Belial, whose

"tongue
Dropped manna, and could make the worst appear
The better reason, to perplex and dash
Maturest counsels;"

or of

"Raphael, the sociable spirit, that deigned
To travel with Tobias."

Milton's father was a musician. He seems to have been as fond of music, as his son was of poetry.

Milton, addressing him, says:

"thyself
Art skilful to associate verse with airs
Harmonious, and to give the human voice
A thousand modulations."

The poet learned to sing as soon as he could talk. The remarkable rhythm of his verses is largely owing to the musical education he received in early youth.

Milton's father was a Protestant; so was his first tutor, Thomas Young. Each had suffered for his faith.

Thus was Milton surrounded by those influences which were calculated to make him a leader of the Protestant party. Such he was, both in his public life and his private writings. The sentiments of the stern Puritan often appear in his poems. J. C. G.

COURAGE!

'Tis said the world grows worse,
Beneath a heavy curse ;
That Want and Sin immerse
 Panting creation ;
That Error wins the day,
In every sharp affray ;
And Truth makes long delay,
 To take her station.

Men squander golden hours,
And waste the noblest powers,
In Pleasure's summer bowers,
 To feast on sweetness ;
With soft beguiling airs
To lull the soul from cares,
While on, the fateful years
 Rush in their fleetness.

'Tis true, alas ! I fear,
That life is cold and drear
To many a sad soul here,
 Not known in story.
And man is selfish too,
The false obscures the true,
Nor yet has come to view,
 Millennial glory.

Still, 'mid the din and heat,
I feel the stronger beat
Of myriad marching feet, —
 Truth's legions hasting.
Look forth with open eyes ;
Leave self, and selfish sighs ;
To life-long war arise,
 Its glories tasting.

By every prayerful thought,
By every good deed wrought,
By every battle fought
 For God and duty,
The day is hastened on,
When Truth shall have her own,
And wear the victor's crown,
 In perfect beauty.

D. C.

CLASS WORK IN TEACHING MUSIC.

Teacher (making a musical sound). What did you hear?
Pupils. We heard a sound. *T*. Listen again. (Draws a chair or a settee along the floor.) What do you hear now? *P*. We hear a noise. *T*. Is not this also a sound? *P*. It is. *T*. How does this sound differ from the other? *P*. This is unpleasant; the other was pleasant. *T*. True; but what makes one pleasant, and the other unpleasant? *P*. We can not tell. *T*. (Striking with a stick upon a chair, at irregular intervals.) Is this sound pleasant, or unpleasant. *P*. Rather unpleasant. *T*. (Beating regularly, i. e., *drumming* upon the chair.) What of this? *P*. It is much more pleasant than the other. *T*. How do these sounds differ? *P*. One is regular; the other irregular. *T*. Can you now tell in what respect the first two sounds differed? *P*. We think they differed very much as the last two differed. *T*. A *regular* sound, or a sound produced by regular vibrations, is called a musical sound, or a *tone*. A sound produced by irregular vibrations, is called a *noise*. Now you may define a tone; a noise. That which treats of *tones* is called music. Define music.

T. Now listen. (Makes two sounds, a high and a low.) Were these two sounds alike? *P*. They were not. *T*. How did they differ? *P*. One was high; the other low. *T*. Make a high sound. Now a low one. Listen again. (Makes two sounds, a loud and a soft.) How did these differ? *P*. One was loud; the other soft. *T*. Make a loud sound. A soft sound. One high and loud. One low, soft, etc.

Listen again. (Makes two sounds, a long and a short.) How did these differ? *P*. One was long; the other short. *T*. Make a long sound. A short sound. One long and loud. One short and soft. One long, high, and loud. Etc., etc.

T. You have now learned that tones may differ in how many ways? *P*. In three: they may be high or low, loud or soft, long or short.

T. Listen. (Makes the sound represented by C.) All may make this sound. The tone you have just given we will call one. (Makes the figure 1 on the blackboard as a sign for the sound.)

T. Observe. (Gives the sound represented by D.) How does

this sound differ from the first? *P.* It is higher. *T.* Very much higher? *P.* Only a little. *T.* What, then, may we call this? * Sound 2. Now 1, 2; 2, 1. *T.* Listen. (Gives E.) How does this sound differ from 2? What, then, may we call this? Now you may sing 3, 2, 1; 1, 2, 3; 3, 1; etc. [This method may be followed, the several sounds being reviewed and combined at every step, until 8 is reached. The pupils will readily perceive, that 8 resembles 1 much more than do any of the intermediate tones; resembles it so closely, in fact, that most persons pronounce them the same. They may thus be led to see the reason for extending the series no farther.]

T. Listen. (Sings 1, 2; 2, 3; 3, 4; etc.; directing the attention of the class to the intervals.) What is the ascending and descending of this series like? *P.* Like going up and down a ladder. *T.* What, then, might we call this series? *P.* A musical ladder. *T.* Does the ladder ever receive any other name? *P.* It is sometimes called a scale. *T.* This series is sometimes called the musical ladder, but more frequently the scale. *T.* What may we call the spaces or intervals between the tones? But, as they are not all equal, would it not be well to distinguish the two kinds by different names? *P.* We might call the smaller intervals half steps. [The teacher should now lead the class to see that the essential elements of the scale are the number of sounds and the intervals between them; that, therefore, the series is the same whether it begins with a high sound or a low sound; that this scale is the *alphabet* of music.]

This imperfect sketch is intended to illustrate what seems to be the right method of teaching music. The writer does not claim the merit of originality for this method. It is the method of Pestalozzi.

As they are too frequently taught, the terms used in music have no real significance; and the study itself is much less pleasurable than it would be if presented rationally.

The staff upon which the notes are placed, is as much a support as is that upon which a feeble man leans. The *clefs* are keys as truly as are those by which the bolts of locks are turned. And yet, it is probable, that not one in fifty of those who sing in our

* To save space, the answers are omitted from what follows, when they are perfectly obvious.

choirs, understands the meaning of either of these very common terms.

Let us have music, singing, in all our schools. It is pleasant, healthful, and ennobling. Let it commence and close every session. Let it accompany calisthenics and gymnastics. And if at any time the pupils become listless, or restless, suspend work and sing a song. There is nothing like it to "chase heavy hours away."

Finally, when we teach music, let us teach it rationally. s

SCHOOL MANNERS.

A FEW words on this subject is what many need, but what most persons would resent if addressed to them personally. It is hoped that these few words will not be taken amiss, but secure your approbation.

In the first place, — never lose your temper — on any condition whatever; how muchsoever cause you may think you have for so doing, just as surely as you do, with it you will lose the deference and respect due you from your pupils. I wish the importance of this could be appreciated. I have heard teachers shouting with rage at a scholar. Such an act is most detrimental to a teacher's success.

Nearly as unfavorable a result is attained by forming a habit of scolding. No matter how much impression is made on a school by the first act, a repetition of it weakens the teacher's influence much. It is best to form a habit never to command a scholar till he has at least refused to comply with your request. It is always better to ask a scholar to do a thing than to command him, as there are but few scholars who will not comply with a kind request willingly, while a command would needlessly irritate.

I must deprecate entirely the use of tobacco in any form. The man who uses that weed is not fit for a school-house. Chewing substances of any kind, spitting, blowing or picking the nose, cleaning the nails, or drumming or tattooing with the fingers, are habits which should be utterly abolished from the schoolroom.

The position is an object of importance in the schoolroom. The teacher should abstain from tipping back in his chair, "sitting down into himself," or placing the feet on the stove or table. He should in standing as well as sitting maintain an erect position of the body. He should in all cases avoid an indolent position.

Previous to entering the schoolroom, the teacher should have his face, hands, nails, and teeth, perfectly clean. His hair also should be neat. Inattention in these particulars will have its influence on the pupils. The teacher should move about the room as quietly as possible, and to accomplish this end he should discard all "creaking boots" and wear slippers. His linen should be scrupulously neat. He should do his best to keep dirt from the floor and seats. His stove should be kept clean; his books in order on his desk, not in confusion, and free from dust.

While the teacher should avoid noise and be quiet in the schoolroom, he should show energy. This covers a multitude of sins. The energetical man is the man for the world; other men may succeed, but none so easily as he. In short, the teacher should be a perfect gentleman in the schoolroom, if nowhere else. He should recollect that his pupils are receiving impressions which years, perhaps, cannot efface, and which will have a lasting influence on their characters. "A word to the wise is sufficient." * *

SPELLING AND DEFINING.

ILLUSTRATED definitions may be given with great profit, in connection with the orthography of words. Each pupil may choose his own word, or words may be assigned by the teacher.

The definitions should follow the illustrations, and be derived from them. The spelling should follow the definition. After the orthography is given, it is well to have the definitions repeated.

For example, suppose one of the pupils has selected the word *microscope*. When called upon by the teacher, he rises, exhibits a microscope, and says: "I have here an instrument by which I am enabled to see objects so small as to be invisible to the unaided eye.

On account of its use this instrument has received a name which is a compound of the Greek words μικρός, small, and σκοπεω, to view. This name is microscope; it means literally, something for viewing small objects.

Microscope. M-i, mī; c-r-o, cro, mī-cro; s-c-o-p-e, scōpe, mī-cro-scōpe; an instrument for viewing small objects.

The teacher should insist upon great care in the preparation of these exercises.

Since the illustrations are given for the purpose of deriving the meaning of the words, everything should be excluded from them, that does not bear directly upon the definitions. S.

KNOWLEDGE IN THE NORTH AND SOUTH.

THE following facts show, that knowledge is more widely diffused in the Northern than in the Southern States.

By the census of 1850 it appeared, that in New England at that time, there was only one in four hundred that could not read and write; while in the slaveholding States, one in twelve of the white population was unable to read.

It is true there are many highly educated persons in the States last named, but the major part of the white people have had very little mental culture.

The same thing is shown by the disparity that exists between the number and size of the public libraries in these two sections. In 1850, Massachusetts had 684,000 volumes in her public libraries; while Virginia, with a population which is to that of the Bay State as 7 to 5, had only 88,000 volumes in her libraries; and South Carolina, the Athens of the South, had only 107,000 volumes.

The number of newspapers and periodicals published in a State, affords some clue to the intelligence of the people. In 1850, 64 millions of copies were printed and published in Massachusetts, while in Virginia there were only 9 millions, and in South Carolina only 7 millions.

E. D.

Resident Editors' Department.

THE AUGUST EDUCATIONAL MEETINGS.

THE week commencing on the 18th of August promises much to teachers and the friends of education. The programme of the State Meeting at Worcester, which we publish in this number, shows what may be expected there. It will be seen that Gov. Andrew and the Secretary of the Board of Education will be present, each to speak upon an important question. The lecturers are able men and earnest workers in the educational field. The subjects proposed for discussion are of unusual interest. Present indications are that the meeting will be a large one and of great usefulness. The American Institute at Hartford has also an excellent programme, and will no doubt keep up its reputation of holding the best educational meetings in the country.

Come, then, one and all, to these meetings. The advantages you will receive will more than compensate for whatever expense or inconvenience they may occasion you.

MEETINGS AT EDUCATIONAL ROOMS.

THESE meetings are for the present suspended. The next meeting will be held on Saturday the 6th of September, at 2½ o'clock, P. M. Subject: *What ought to be accomplished in Drawing in Grammar Schools, and what constitutes good instruction in that branch?*

IS IT HONEST?

At the beginning of the year some of our subscribers, having paid their dues, returned the January number and stopped their subscriptions. We were sorry to part with such, but their dealing with us was straightforward and manly, and we had no fault to find.

Within a month or two past, in two or three instances, subscribers having received the *Teacher* since January, return the last number with the request to stop their subscriptions, and that without any thought of paying for the numbers they have received. Is this *honest*?

APOLOGY.

IN looking over the last number of the *New York Teacher*, we noticed an article, *A Sketch of the History of Education*, credited to the *Massachusetts Teacher*. We immediately turned to our April number, and discovered that through some inadvertence, the article in question was not credited to the *Illinois Teacher*, from whose pages it was copied. Will the latter journal accept our apology? We very often appropriate its good things, but we always mean to give proper credit.

A REBEL TEACHER.

THE Postmaster of Lawrenceburg, Ky., writes "please to discontinue sending the *Massachusetts Teacher* to ——— as he has left here and joined the rebel army." We shall heed the Postmaster's request; but there is a Massachusetts teacher in the Union Army we shall be very happy to send to our rebel subscriber, if he will inform us of his address.

What has become of that Schoolmaster's Regiment that was on the *tapis* a few months ago?

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association will be held in Worcester, at City Hall, on Monday and Tuesday, August 18th and 19th. The Exercises will be as follows:

MONDAY, Aug. 18th. At 2 1-2 o'clock, P. M., the meeting will be organized for the transaction of business. The customary Addresses and Reports will be made.

At 3 1-2 o'clock, P. M., a discussion. Subject: *What is the Extent of the Teacher's Authority over his Scholars beyond School Hours?* The discussion will be opened by Hon. Joseph White, Secretary of the Board of Education.

At 8 o'clock, P. M., a lecture, by James K. Lombard, Esq., Principal of the High School, Worcester.

TUESDAY, Aug. 19th. At 9 o'clock, A. M., a meeting for business.

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Eliot School, Boston, upon *The Utility and Practicability of Gymnastics in Public Schools*. At the request of the Committee of Arrangements, a class of boys from the Eliot School will be present, and execute the various gymnastic movements practised in that school. The lecture will be followed by a discussion.

At 2 o'clock, P. M., the Election of Officers, and other business.

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At 4 o'clock, P. M., a discussion. Subject: *The Best Method of Increasing the Moral Sentiment of a School*.

At 8 o'clock, P. M., a lecture by Prof. J. H. Seelye, of Amherst College.

The lecture will be followed by short addresses from various individuals.

The Committee of Arrangements, as instructed by the Board of Directors, have not requested the private hospitality of the citizens of Worcester. They have, however, made arrangements by which those attending the meeting can be entertained at the Hotels at *half the usual rates*.

Tickets to go and return on the Worcester Railroad can be purchased at *hal price*. Those desiring to attend also the meeting of the American Institute, can purchase through tickets to Hartford, as these will allow the holders to stop at Worcester. *Special Tickets* will be prepared for the occasion, and must be purchased of the Ticket-Masters. These tickets can be used only during the week commencing August 18th. *The Secretary's Check will not be received on this road*.

Arrangements have been made with the Western, Connecticut Valley, Old, Colony & Fall River, and Boston & Lowell Railroads, for *free return tickets*. Other roads will be announced hereafter.

JOHN KNEELAND, *President*.

T. D. ADAMS, *Recording Secretary*.

Boston, July 17, 1862.

BRIDGEWATER NORMAL ASSOCIATION.

As we go to press earlier than usual, we will improve the opportunity to call attention to the meeting of the Bridgewater Normal Association to be held on Thursday, the 31st day of July.

The Association will meet in Normal Hall, Bridgewater, at 10 o'clock, A. M., for the transaction of business.

The public exercises will be conducted in the same manner as on former occasions.

Marshall Conant, A. M., late Principal of the Normal School at Bridgewater will deliver the address.

Those members of the convention who come by way of the Old Colony and Fall River Railroad, and any of its branches, will be furnished with free return tickets over the same.

APOLOGY.

IN looking over the last number of the *New York Teacher*, we noticed an article, *A Sketch of the History of Education*, credited to the *Massachusetts Teacher*. We immediately turned to our April number, and discovered that through some inadvertence, the article in question was not credited to the *Illinois Teacher*, from whose pages it was copied. Will the latter journal accept our apology? We very often appropriate its good things, but we always mean to give proper credit.

A REBEL TEACHER.

THE Postmaster of Lawrenceburg, Ky., writes "please to discontinue sending the *Massachusetts Teacher* to ——— as he has left here and joined the rebel army." We shall heed the Postmaster's request; but there is a Massachusetts teacher in the Union Army we shall be very happy to send to our rebel subscriber, if he will inform us of his address.

What has become of that Schoolmaster's Regiment that was on the *tapis* a few months ago?

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INTELLIGENCE.

PERSONAL.

C. Goodwin Clark, at the last session of the Boston School Committee, was promoted from the sub-mastership to the mastership of the Bigelow School.

A PUZZLE.

SOME of the papers are reviving the old puzzle, "from six you take nine, and from nine take ten, then from forty take fifty and six will remain." The solution is as follows :

| | | |
|-----|----|----|
| SIX | IX | XL |
| IX | X | L |
| — | — | — |
| S | I | X |

HIGH SCHOOL QUESTIONS, FALL RIVER, MAY, 1862.

GEOGRAPHY — TIME, 1 H. 30 M.

1. What is longitude? How and upon what is it measured? What places have no longitude? Are the degrees of longitude of the same length? What is latitude? Upon what is it measured? What places have no latitude?
2. Mention the Political divisions of Europe.
3. Name the States that border on the Mississippi.
4. Trace the water route from San Francisco to Canton, and thence to Cincinnati.
5. Explain the cause of Tides.
6. Describe the Mountain Systems of the United States.
7. What four circumstances determine the temperature of a place?
8. State and explain the general laws relative to the distribution of rain.
- 9 & 10. Mention the Agricultural productions of the United States and state where each is found.

GRAMMAR — TIME 1 H. 30 M.

1. Give the principal parts of draw, eat, flow, saw, lay.
2. Compare ill, least, more, farther, next.
3. Define a simple, a compound, and a complex sentence.

4. Correct the following sentences, if they are incorrect.

1. They that honor me, I will honor.
2. They were both unfortunate, but neither were to blame.
3. That is the boy whom we think, deserves the prize.
4. There has never passed any unkind words between you and I.
5. Which is farthest North, Paris or Quebec?

5 & 6. Parse the *Italicized* words in the following:

"From all *save that* o'er which the soul bears sway,
There breathes *but* one record — *passing away*"
 "He has *more* than he knows *what* to do *with*."

7, 8, 9, & 10. Analyze the following passage and parse the *Italicized* words:

"In *looking forward* to the moment which is *intended* to terminate the career of my public life, my feelings *will not* permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude *which* I *owe* to my *beloved* country, for the many honors which she has conferred upon me."

ARITHMETIC — TIME 3 H.

1. Divide fourteen and eight thousand five hundred one ten thousandths by two thousand three hundred seventy-six and sixteen thousandths, and subtract the quotient from $80\frac{3}{16}$.

2. What sum of money, put at interest at 5 per cent, will in 4 years and 8 months *amount* to \$157.25.

3. A note payable in 60 days was discounted at a Bank, and \$500 was the sum received; what was the face of the note?

4. I send my agent a certain sum of money which he invests in cotton, after first deducting his commission of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the purchase. He disposes of the cotton at a loss of 18 per cent., and again deducts his commission at the same rate as before. What per cent. do I lose by the transaction?

5. In a house-lot containing 20 sq. rods, a cellar 25 ft. long, 16 ft. wide and 6 ft. deep is dug and the earth taken from the cellar is spread uniformly over the remainder of the lot. How much will it raise the surface?

6. A man bought a horse for \$125, and sold it for 20 per cent. more than he paid for it, but 10 per cent. less than he asked for it. What did he ask for it?

7. A and B entered into partnership with a joint capital of \$1450. A's stock was in trade 3 months, B's 5 months. B's share of the gain was $\frac{3}{4}$ of A's. What was each man's original capital?

8. A bill of \$1000 will be due in 8 months from June 10th; another of \$850 will become due in a month sooner. What is the equated time of payment?

RESIDENT EDITORS' DEPARTMENT.

9. If 4 oxen and 9 cows eat as much hay in 3 weeks as 7 oxen and 12 cows eat in 2 weeks; how long will it take 16 cows to eat as much hay as 10 oxen will eat in 8 weeks?

10. If 25 coopers can earn as much in 18 days as 16 masons can earn in 27 days, how long will it take 42 masons to earn as much as 50 coopers can earn in 63 days? (To be performed by analysis, and the explanation written out.)

THE PACIFIC.

THIS paper, published at San Francisco, we never allow to pass unread. We read not only from our interest in the Golden State, but from our interest in the paper itself. Of a high moral and religious tone, it advocates heartily all good causes, pleases while it instructs, and is in all respects just what a family paper should be. We were more than ordinarily pleased to find in a late issue the following notice of our own journal.

"The *Massachusetts Teacher* for April is on hand. To those who follow teaching as a profession, we know of no more valuable monthly than the "*Teacher*." But to those who take up teaching because nothing better turns up to them, it must be a dead letter.

If our teachers would take pains to consult its pages and improve by its many suggestions, the effect would be very clearly seen in our schools."

BOOK NOTICES.

ROBINSON'S PROGRESSIVE TABLE BOOK FOR YOUNG CHILDREN. Edited by D. W. FISH, A. M. New York: Ivison, Phinney & Co.

We can see little eyes sparkle as they open this beautifully illustrated book. Its method seems to be to give the tables in lessons of consecutive numbers, then to give the numbers promiscuously, and afterwards all the possible combinations of the numbers, with such exercises as will fix them firmly in the mind. It is a good book and will commend itself to all who examine it.

We have received from the same publishers ROBINSON'S NEW UNIVERSITY ALGEBRA, which we have not yet found time to examine.

TABLES FOR REVIEW. Fred'k A. Brown & Co., 29 Cornhill, have published on a little card a series of questions in review of the Arithmetical Tables. Primary teachers will find them quite convenient to put in the hands of their scholars, at times, in order to test their knowledge, and save themselves the trouble of asking questions.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY. The August number of this popular monthly is of usual interest. Dr. Lewis leads off with a good article on the *New Gymnastics*.

We are getting quite used to the cuts, having seen them in nearly all of our educational exchanges. The Country Parson discourses *Concerning Disagreeable People*. Mr. Frothingham gives an excellent historical paper on *The Sam Adams Regiments of the Town of Boston*. Emerson's *Thoreau* will be read with interest. The articles generally sustain the reputation of the *Atlantic*.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE for August has the usual number of amusing, entertaining, and instructive articles. *A Flying Trip through Norway*, and *Along the Wharves*, are illustrated. The *Editor's Drawer* opens as well as ever. Its supply must be inexhaustible.

HALL'S JOURNAL OF HEALTH for July contains an article on *Teeth*, two or three shorter articles, and a continuation of the excellent series of *Health Tracts*.

LEWIS'S GYMNASTIC MONTHLY for July is more than usually interesting. The Doctor commences in this number the translation of Dr. Schreiber's *Pangymnastikon*, which is a sort of generalization of all gymnastic exercises, bringing them within the compass of a single piece of apparatus.

THE HYGIENIC TEACHER. The *Water Cure Journal*, published by Fowler & Wells, now comes to us with the new name we have given above. The journal will advocate the same principles as heretofore, but the new name is chosen as more comprehensive, and better suited to the objects of the publication. It is ably edited, and will no doubt perform good service.

THE STUDENT AND SCHOOLMATE comes with its accustomed promptness and attractiveness. "Oliver" knows well how "to cater" for the little folks. By the way, is n't he going to do something in the "catering" line for the "big boys" this vacation?

THE HIGH SCHOOL THESAURUS. A publication with the above title sometimes reaches us. It is published and edited by the scholars of the Worcester High School. It is extremely well managed, and must have an excellent influence upon the school. Cannot other High Schools go and do likewise?

HEALTH, ITS FRIENDS AND ITS FOES. By R. D. MUSSEY, M. D., LL. D., late Professor of Anatomy and Surgery at Dartmouth College. Boston: Gould & Lincoln. 1862.

This work is the fruit of a long and extensive professional practice, careful observation and diligent research. The author had seen so much suffering from errors in diet, regimen and medication, that he adopted the practice of making notes of facts and cases. These have been carefully examined in the light of Physiology and Medical Science, and are presented to the reader in such a way as to show clearly the intimate connection of cause and effect. We find the peculiar value of this book in the success with which science has been made practical, and in the lucid style which is comprehensive to the general reader, yet not beneath the regard of professional men. Teachers will find in these pages excellent material for making Physiology not only highly interesting but also fruitful and beneficial.

THE AGE OF CHIVALRY. By THOMAS BULFINCH. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

This exceedingly interesting and valuable work is by the author of *The Age of Fable*. In noticing the latter work a few months ago, we made an extract from

an article written by one of our most popular teachers. The following is from the same pen :

"We are happy now, dear reader, to call your attention to 'The Age of Chivalry,' published in a handsome duodecimo, by Crosby and Nichols. As a key to the leading legends and romances of the mediæval days—that 'second age of fable'—it will be quite as valuable as the volume devoted to the classical myths:—more so indeed, for it is the only popular work covering the whole ground. Not a few treatises on the Greek and Roman mythology have been published in cheap form—Keightley's, Dwight's, and others—some of which, though not at all equal to the 'Age of Fable,' answered a very good purpose; but we know of no work—certainly none published in this country—which professes to give an outline of the fables of mediæval time, or which may serve as a key to countless allusions to those fables, in modern literature. Even people of considerable literary culture are often puzzled by poetic allusions based upon the stories of Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table, while they would not be posed by anything of the kind suggested by the classical myths; and they know not where to look for a solution of the enigma. It seems strange, not to say absurd, that the mythical history of our mother country should be less familiar to us than that of Greece and Italy, India and Egypt; but so it is—and so it *must* be, while we have no popular work which may serve as a household encyclopædia on the subject.

"Such a work this 'Age of Chivalry' is meant to be, and we think that the plan is admirably carried out. We have read it through carefully, and have found not a few things which we were glad to add to our own stock of knowledge—and should have found a good deal more, doubtless, but that the old ballad literature of England (from which we see that Mr. Bulfinch has drawn much of his material,) has been, from boyhood, one of our favorite studies.

"The Introduction gives an interesting sketch of the days of Chivalry, the training of the Knight, the various classes of society—freemen, villains, serfs, and clerks,—the tournaments, an account of the ancient armor and weapons, the prose and metrical romances, and kindred topics. The Mythical History of England is next given—condensed from that by the poet Milton, and including the reigns of Leir and Cymbeline, which Shakspeare has made the ground-work of two of his dramas. Then follow all the prominent legends in regard to Merlin the Enchanter, Arthur and his queen, the faithless Guenevere, the Knights of the Round Table, the Lady of Shallott, on which Tennyson has founded one of his poems, and the Search for the Sangreal, or Holy Grail, which Lowell has made the basis of 'The Vision of Sir Launfal.'

"The Second Part of the book is a compilation from the *Mabinogion*, or Welsh Popular Tales, which, after lying for centuries, in manuscript, in the Bodleian library at Oxford, have but recently been translated into English and printed. Fifty years ago, the attention of the learned was attracted to them, and Scott, Southey, Sharon, Turner, and others urged that an English version of them should be made; but nothing of the kind was attempted (except the partial translation of Owen, who was but imperfectly acquainted with English,) until Lady Charlotte Guest, an enthusiastic student of the old literature of Wales, gave the public her admirable translation of the whole of them. But her work, in four costly octavos, containing the Welsh originals, the translations, and copious illustrations from French, German, and other contemporary and affiliated literature, is hardly accessible to the majority of readers; and Mr. Bulfinch has done a good work in giving its most attractive portions in connection with the kindred legends of Arthur and his Knights.

"The book will be interesting as a collection of tales and legends, aside from its value to the reader of English poetry, which, as we have intimated, abounds in allusions to these old romances. It is published in two different styles—both illustrated with designs, some of which we recognize as borrowed from the best English artists. In the more elegant edition, the illustrations are printed in oil colors, in style that compares very favorably with work of the same kind from foreign presses.

JUST PUBLISHED.

EATON'S Common School Arithmetic.

A FULL COURSE OF WRITTEN ARITHMETIC FOR COMMON AND GRAMMAR SCHOOLS, combining ANALYSIS and SYNTHESIS, and adapted to the best mode of instruction. By JAMES S. EATON, Instructor in Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., and author of a Series of Arithmetics.

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The appearance of EATON'S NEW TREATISE ON WRITTEN ARITHMETIC, about four years since, was the cause of rousing the attention of many teachers to a more thorough, clear, full and satisfactory treatment of the principles of arithmetic as they are presented in the class-room. The tedious, wordy, inaccurate books in arithmetic, which, absolutely for want of better, had long been in use in our New England Schools, with their crooked and knotty methods and explanations, were creating a distaste for this important branch to study. EATON'S TREATISE was found to be a superior book, and specially adapted for use in High Schools and Academies, and in Grammar and Common Schools of the first class. In these it has achieved a permanent circulation, which only a book of high merit could reach. For the lower class of Grammar Schools, and many Common Schools, which for numerous reasons cannot maintain a high rank, where a less extended, but no less thorough and complete course of Written Arithmetic is needed, the author now presents THE COMMON SCHOOL ARITHMETIC. It is in no way a revision of the "TREATISE," but entirely distinct from that work. The definitions and rules are substantially the same, while some of the explanations are more simplified. THE EXAMPLES IT CONTAINS ARE WHOLLY DIFFERENT. Its general methods and character are of course similar.

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July, '62. — tf.

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STATE OF NEW JERSEY, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, Newark, Feb. 17, 1862.

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Apr. '62.

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"I have, with the unanimous concurrence of our school committee, adopted it for use in the Elliot High School. I cannot pay the work a higher compliment."

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"There is a wholeness and a brevity about it which is truly refreshing in this book-making age. I particularly admire its method of teaching trigonometric functions — an improvement upon the old system, and that too on an essential point, as it changes the basis of investigation wholly for the better."

Prof. F. A. ALLEN, A. M., Principal of Chester County Normal School, Pa. :

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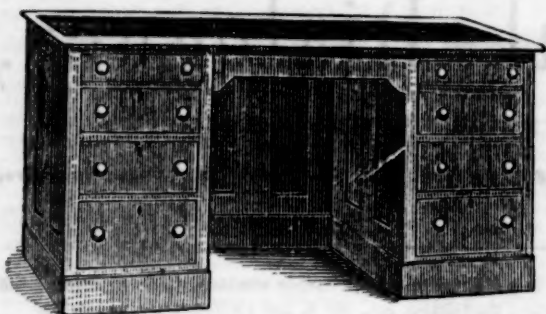
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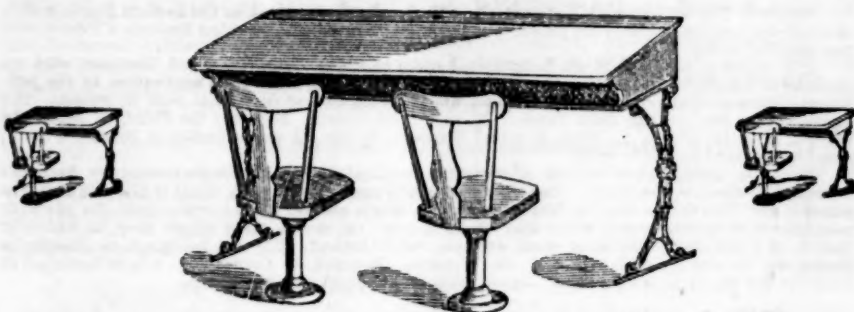
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